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ABSTRACT

Students in intermediate language courses, especially conversational courses, can benefit from a simple set of instructions for combining words and phrases into sentences. A description of the basic concepts determining word order in German--the fundamental sequence of clause elements, the "infrastructure," and the movement rules by which the various forms of the finite clause may be generated, i.e., declarative sentences, direct and indirect yes-no and information questions, and noun clauses after "dass and ob"--are presented. This model is then expanded to include the common adverbs "auch, gern, immer, mehr, nicht, nie, noch, and schon" singly and in certain combinations. An examination of several problems of negation in German which arise from contrasts with their English counterparts is included. (Author/MSE)

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Edward G. Fichtner: A functional syntax of German (abstract)

Students in intermediate courses, especially conversational courses, can benefit from a simple set of instructions for combining words and phrases into sentences. This article presents a description of the basic concepts determining word order in German: the fundamental sequence of clause elements, the 'infrastructure'; and the movement rules by which the various forms of the finite clause may be generated, i.e., declarative sentences, direct and indirect yes-no and information questions, and noun clauses after daß and ob. This model is then expanded to include the common adverbs auch, gern, immer, mehr, nicht, nie, noch, and schon. singly and in certain combinations. The article concludes with an examination of several problems of negation in German which arise from contrasts with their English counterparts.

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Edward G. Fichtner: Biographical description

Edward G. Fichtner is Professor in the Department of Germanic, Slavic, and East European Languages of Queens College, City University of New York. His academic interests encompass Germanic philology, medieval German and Scandinavian literature, the history and structure of modern German, and the contrastive grammar of English and German. Publications in the latter areas include articles in the TESOL Quarterly and Die Unterrichtspraxis, a book on English and German Syntax (München, 1979), and several articles in other periodicals and collections.

A functional syntax of German

0. Introduction

Over the past few years, the terms 'notional' and 'functional' have been cropping up in articles on second-language teaching with some regularity.[1] In most cases, these terms refer to the criteria by which vocabulary items are chosen for various kinds of teaching materials.[2] The 'notional' categories are reflected in the situations and topics with which the learner must deal, while the word 'functional' refers to the interactions in which the learner may be involved as a participant in those situations. The application of notional-functional criteria is thus a way of selecting vocabulary items according to their potential usefulness in certain circumstances.

However helpful the careful selection of vocabulary items may be in the preparation of teaching materials, the situation frequently arises, especially in courses on the intermediate level, in which the student struggles to express his/her thoughts because the appropriate syntactic construction does not come readily to mind. This can happen even though the student's preparation in

previous semesters has been adequate, and even when the relevant vocabulary items and idioms have been presented and practiced. The first year of study of a second language like French, German, or Spanish is normally devoted to the study of the basic forms and structures of the language; even though fluency in speaking may have had a high priority among the goals of the course, the student's control of much of this material--given the time available--is not likely to extend much beyond passive recognition. When the student appears in the third semester conversation class, on the other hand, he/she is suddenly expected to have active control and immediate recall of sentence patterns which may have been neither precisely defined nor completely assimilated. What is needed at this level, therefore, is a set of instructions for sentence-building which reorganize what the student may already know passively so as to make it more useful for the purpose of active communication. A 'functional syntax' is, in this sense, a simplified set of rules for arranging words in the proper sequence in order to form authentic German sentences.

During the past few semesters, the author has been experimenting with different formulations of such rules. The description of German clause structure presented in this article is a practical application of certain key concepts governing German word order which have been more fully explored on the theoretical level elsewhere.[3]

The use of this model will help the student to refocus the notions of German word order gained in his/her previous study of the language, so that he/she can build sentences which conform closely to German idiom, and at the same time acquire the foundation for the use of more complicated structures at a later stage of study of the language. For pedagogical reasons, this model is limited to independent and dependent finite clauses--direct and indirect yes-no and information questions, declarative sentences, and dependent finite (noun) clauses after daß and ob.

1. Basic concepts

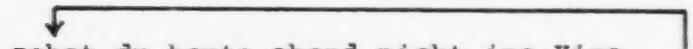
The basic sentence structure of the German language may be described in terms of two fundamental concepts: first, the relationship which obtains among the sentence patterns displaying the three positions of the finite verb; and second, the position of non-verb elements in the clause. As to the three positions of the finite verb--finite-verb-second (FV-2), finite-verb-first (FV-1), and finite-verb-last (FV-L)--the usual practice is to introduce the first two of these at the beginning of an introductory textbook, usually calling FV-2 word order 'normal', and FV-1 word order 'inverted'.[4] Then, several chapters later, FV-L word order is introduced under the label of 'dependent' or 'transposed' word order. While there may be valid pedagogical reasons for this practice in beginning textbooks,

what students in conversation courses need is a way of relating all three in a simple fashion. After all, conversations often involve a rapid conversion of one pattern into another, e.g.:

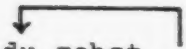
Erich: "Gehst du heute abend ins Kino?" (= FV-1)
Martin: "Wie bitte?"
Erich: "Ob du heute abend ins Kino gehst?" (= FV-L)

From the standpoint of economy of description, it makes more sense to proceed in just the opposite direction: to take FV-L word order as the point of departure, to derive FV-1 word order from that, and FV-2 word order in turn from FV-1 word order.[5] At the deepest level of structure, the verb in German is at the end of the clause (FV-L), anyway; by moving the finite verb to the beginning of the clause, we generate FV-1 word order; and by placing a non-verb element in front of the finite verb, we produce FV-2 word order. This series of operations is presented in the following examples:

du heute abend nicht ins Kino gehst (= FV-L)

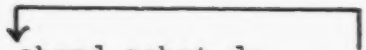


gehst du heute abend nicht ins Kino ... (= FV-1)



du gehst .. heute abend nicht ins Kino (= FV-2)

or, alternatively, to generate a different pattern of FV-2 word order:



heute abend gehst du ... nicht ins Kino (= FV-2)

In the case of FV-2 word order, the speaker of German has a much wider choice of elements which can be 'topicalized', or placed in front of the finite verb, than does the speaker of English. The last two lines above illustrate those choices, i.e., both du and the adverb heute abend may be shifted at this point into clause-initial position.

The second fundamental concept defining the structure of the German clause is the position of non-verb elements. We have noted that the verb is basically in final position in the German clause. Immediately preceding the verb is often--though not always--either a noun or an adverb, frequently an adverbial prepositional phrase. This element is called the 'nucleus complement' (NCOMP).[6] The combination of this element with the verb constitutes a structural unit which is as familiar as it is fundamental:

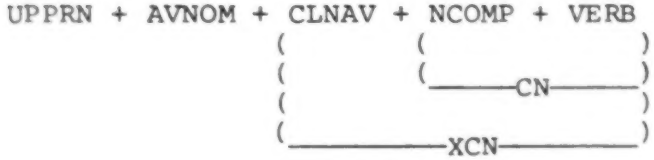
NOUN + VERB	PRPHR + VERB
Auto + fahren	ins Konzert + gehen
Zeitung + lesen	nach Hause + kommen
Tennis + spielen	auf den Tisch + legen
Gebrauch + machen	in den Mund + nehmen
Gefahr + laufen	zum Essen + einladen
eine Klasse + besuchen	aus der Reihe + tanzen
einen Wagen + kaufen	vor die Hunde + gehen

This combination of NCOMP + VERB constitutes the 'clause nucleus' (CN)--the foundation of the German clause.[7]

Immediately preceding the clause nucleus one may find an adverb. Most important among those which may appear in this position is the negative adverb nicht, but a number of others may share that slot, too, e.g., nicht mehr, noch nicht, gern, nicht gern, etc. The clause nucleus plus this 'clause nucleus adverb' (CLNAV) constitute the 'expanded clause nucleus' (XCN). The two slots which stand before the expanded clause nucleus contain, first, 'adverbonominals' (AVNOM) and 'unaccented personal pronouns' (UPPRN). The pronouns, when present, are arranged in the order of nominative, accusative, dative, and genitive. Adverbonominals are, in effect, any elements not assigned to any of the other slots or

tagmemes. While there are certain subsidiary rules which apply to the adverbonominals, such as the prescription about the sequence of adverbs of time, manner, and place, questions of priority within this tagmeme rarely arise when sentences are short. Hence, further specifications may be omitted for the sake of simplicity.

As the fundamental order of form-classes on the deepest level of structure, we have elaborated a sequence of five slots or tagmemes.[8] Beginning at the right, these are the verb (VERB), the nucleus complement (NCOMP), the clause nucleus adverb (CLNAV), the adverbonominal (AVNOM), and the unaccented personal pronoun (UPPRN):



The nucleus complement and the verb, taken together, constitute the clause nucleus (CN); when preceded by a clause nucleus adverb (CLNAV), they are the expanded clause nucleus (XCN). Thus, the example presented above contains the following clause elements, which fall into the tagmemes or slots indicated:

du$_{\underline{\text{UPPRN}}}$ heute abend$_{\underline{\text{AVNOM}}}$ nicht$_{\underline{\text{CLNAV}}}$ ins Kino$_{\underline{\text{NCOMP}}}$ gehen$_{\underline{\text{VERB}}}$

Let us now turn to some examples of German sentences to see how these concepts can help us and our students to grasp the underlying principles governing word order in German, and how to use those insights in order to form new sentences.

2. Sentence building

When the need arises to form a simple sentence, e.g., the German equivalent of he isn't going to the concert on Monday, the student's natural inclination is to imitate the pattern of English and say ??? er nicht geht ins Konzert am Montag. It is not enough to inhibit the production of such utterances; the student must also be given precise instructions as to how to order the lexical items of the clause in proper fashion. In practice, implementing this model of German syntax means learning how to generate the sentence through a series of carefully defined steps. Later, when the student is sure of his/her ground, some of these steps can be left out, and ultimately he/she will have to use these concepts only to check on his performance in cases of uncertainty.

Employing the concepts presented above, we start with the verb gehen and place the nucleus complement ins Konzert before it to produce the clause nucleus ins Konzert gehen. Then we place the adverbial expression am Montag before the nucleus, and the unaccented personal

pronoun er at the beginning of the sequence, producing the series of elements er am Montag ins Konzert gehen. This series is called the 'infrastructure' (IS) of the sentence, and consists of the properly ordered sequence of clause elements before any modifications of the verb has been effected.

Once this infrastructure has been formed, the verb may be modified so as to produce one of the several tenses, or by the addition of a modal auxiliary, or by combinations of these. If we choose the present tense modification, then the verb form is changed from gehen to geht. The resulting sequence could be used immediately as a dependent finite clause embedded in a matrix clause as an indirect yes-no question, e.g., (ich weiß nicht, ob) er am Montag ins Konzert geht. By moving the finite verb to the beginning, we form a direct yes-no question, i.e., geht er am Montag ins Konzert? And finally, by placing either of the non-nuclear elements before the finite verb, our correctly formed declarative sentence is generated: er geht am Montag ins Konzert. It may be helpful at this point to recapitulate these operations step by step:

CN (= clause nucleus): ins Konzert gehen

IS (= infrastructure): er am Montag ins Konzert gehen

FV-L: er am Montag ins Konzert geht

FV-1: geht er am Montag ins Konzert ....

FV-2: er geht .. am Montag ins Konzert

FV-2: am Montag geht er .... ins Konzert

This fundamental five-step procedure can be varied to generate far more complex sentences than those presented above. The complexities involve two additional variables: first, those arising in connection with different verb modifications; and second, those which result from the different combinations of non-verb elements in the infrastructure. For example, when the verb modification occasions the addition of an auxiliary verb, the same series of operations will still generate correctly formed utterances, e.g.:

CN: ins Konzert gehen

IS: er am Montag ins Konzert gehen

FV-L: er am Montag ins Konzert gegangen ist

FV-1: ist er am Montag ins Konzert gegangen ...

FV-2: er ist .. am Montag ins Konzert gegangen

FV-2: am Montag ist er .... ins Konzert gegangen

Note, first of all, that the auxiliary verb <u>ist</u> stands

initially at the right of the lexical verb gehen, which assumes its participial form gegangen; these forms are already in the proper position for a dependent finite clause, e.g., (wissen Sie, ob) er am Montag ins Konzert gegangen ist? When FV-1 word order is generated, the lexical verb remains at the end of the utterance, because it is only the finite verb--in this case, the auxiliary ist--which shifts to initial position.

In like fashion, the lexical or main verb remains in clause-final position when the finite verb is a modal auxiliary, e.g.:

CN:					ins	Konzert	gehen
IS:		er	am	Montag	ins	Konzert	gehen
FV-L:		er	am	Montag	ins	Konzert	gehen will
FV-1:	will	er	am	Montag	ins	Konzert	gehen ....
FV-2:	er will	..	am	Montag	ins	Konzert	gehen
FV-2:	am Montag will	er	....		ins	Konzert	gehen

Both examples, the former in the perfect tense, as well as the one with the modal auxiliary above, support the view that the fundamental position of the lexical verb in German is at the end of its infrastructure.[9]

One final variation which can be accommodated in this generative treatment of German word order involves the verb with a separable prefix. When the lexical verb

is the finite verb, and is topicalized, the prefix stays in clause-final position, as in this example:

CN: nach Bonn abreisen
IS: er am Montag nach Bonn abreisen
FV-L: er am Montag nach Bonn abreiste
FV-1: reiste er am Montag nach Bonn ab-.....
FV-2: er reiste .. am Montag nach Bonn ab

In all of these examples, we can observe that the modifications of the verb do not require any change in our specifications for the movement of the finite verb into initial position, though the finite verb may be either an auxiliary like ist or will, or the lexical verb itself, like geht or -reiste.

3. Direct and indirect information questions

The procedures for building sentences just described can, with one addition, be used to form direct and indirect information questions, i.e., those beginning with a question word such as as was, wo, wer, wann, etc. This change involves the transformation of one of the elements in the infrastructure into the appropriate interrogative (ITRG) expression. Using the example above, one would form the German equivalent of the question when did he go to the concert? in the following way:

CN:				ins Konzert gehen
IS:		er	am Montag	ins Konzert gehen
ITRG:		er	WANN	ins Konzert gehen
FV-L:		er	WANN	ins Konzert gegangen ist
FV-1:	ist	er	WANN	ins Konzert gegangen ...
FV-2:	WANN ist	er	....	ins Konzert gegangen

To generate the question who went to the concert on Monday? the same procedures are applied; however, a different element is interrogativized:

CN:				ins Konzert gehen
IS:		er	am Montag	ins Konzert gehen
ITRG:		WER	am Montag	ins Konzert gehen
FV-L:		WER	am Montag	ins Konzert gegangen ist
FV-1:	ist	WER	am Montag	ins Konzert gegangen ...
FV-2:	WER ist	...	am Montag	ins Konzert gegangen

The student must keep in mind, first, that one of the elements in the infrastructure must be changed to the appropriate interrogative form, and second, that it is the interrogative element which is moved to clause-initial position to produce FV-2 word order.

Indirect information questions are formed in the same fashion, except that the movement of the finite verb to initial position is omitted. The indirect form

of the first question above would be generated thus:

CN:			ins Konzert gehen
IS:		er am Montag	ins Konzert gehen
ITRG:		er WANN	ins Konzert gehen
FV-L:		er WANN	ins Konzert gegangen ist
FV-1:	(omitted)		
FV-2 → FV-L:	WANN	er	ins Konzert gegangen ist

This sequence would normally be embedded in a matrix clause, e.g., (sie wollte wissen,) wann er ins Konzert gegangen ist. The difference between a direct and an indirect information question in German thus lies solely in the omission of the movement of the finite verb to clause-initial position in the case of the latter.

4. Clause nucleus adverbs

None of the examples in the foregoing discussion contained a clause nucleus adverb (CLNAV). This form-class includes only a small number of adverbs and adverbial expressions, but these are of great importance for the active use of German because they occur so frequently. A functional syntax of German must include specifications for the use of auch, gern, immer, nicht, nie, noch, and schon, singly and in certain combinations. In all cases, they are placed before the clause nucleus (CN), which

then by their addition becomes the expanded clause nucleus (XCN), as in these examples:

CN:	ins Konzert gehen
XCN:	NICHT ins Konzert gehen
IS:	er am Montag NICHT ins Konzert gehen
FV-L:	er am Montag NICHT ins Konzert gegangen ist
FV-1:	ist er am Montag NICHT ins Konzert gegangen ...
FV-2:	er ist .. am Montag NICHT ins Konzert gegangen[10]

CN:	ins Konzert gehen
XCN:	AUCH ins Konzert gehen
IS:	er am Montag AUCH ins Konzert gehen
FV-L:	er am Montag AUCH ins Konzert gehen will
FV-1:	will er am Montag AUCH ins Konzert gehen ....
FV-2:	er will .. am Montag AUCH ins Konzert gehen

Not only do these clause nucleus adverbs appear as individual lexical items in the appropriate context, but they can also appear in certain combinations. The range of possibilities, again somewhat simplified for pedagogical purposes, is represented in the following formula:

auch + schon / (((immer) noch) nicht) (nicht/nie (mehr)) + gern

The plus sign ("+") joins elements which may co-occur; the

slanting lines ("/") indicate that either the one or the other element divided by them may be present, but not both; elements in parentheses may or may not be present, i.e., are optional. Thus, both auch and gern may appear together with an adverb from the center group. Of these elements, one may choose either schon, or one or more of the adverbs which follow; nicht and nie may not occur together; these adverbs may be either preceded by (immer) noch, which may also occur alone; nicht or nie may be followed by mehr. Obviously, the choice of adverb or combination of adverbs will depend on what the speaker wants to say; once the appropriate expression is chosen, our formula guides the speaker in placing it in the proper position in the sentence. Some examples follow which illustrate the combinations of these clause nucleus adverbs as well as the contrasting positions of their English counterparts (in italics):

er spielt auch Schach 'he (also) plays chess, too'[11]
er spielt auch gern Schach 'he (also) likes to play chess, too'
er spielt nicht Schach 'he doesn't /know how to/ play chess' or 'he is not playing chess /now/'
er spielt auch nicht Schach 'he doesn't (isn't) play (-ing) chess, either'
er spielt nicht mehr Schach 'he doesn't play chess any more'

er spielt nicht mehr gern Schach 'he doesn't like to play chess any more'

er spielt auch nicht mehr gern Schach 'he doesn't like to play chess any more, either'

er spielt immer noch Schach 'he still plays chess'

er spielt immer noch gern Schach 'he still likes to play chess'

Of all of the problems which result from these contrasts between English and German in connection with the clause nucleus adverbs, perhaps the most important for communicative purposes have to do with simple clause negation, i.e., nicht in contradiction, and with too and either, i.e., auch and auch nicht.

5. Special problems of negation

The final component of this functional syntax of German deals with certain special problems arising in connection with negation.[12] To begin with, we must keep in mind the distinction between clause-element or contrastive negation (Satzgliednegation) and clause negation or contradiction (Satznegation). Contrastive negation works in much the same way in both languages: the negative adverb stands before the element negated; German uses the special conjunction sondern, where English uses but, e.g.:

er fährt nicht heute nach Bonn, sondern morgen 'he is going to Bonn not today, but tomorrow'

Clause negation is a source of confusion for a number of reasons. For one thing, German has both a negative adverb nicht and a negative nominal modifier kein-. For another, there is a distinction in German between specific and non-specific nouns, one which affects the position of the negated noun in a direct way; there is no corresponding distinction in English. And finally, the same affirmative sentence in English may exhibit two patterns of negation, one which resembles that of German, and another which differs strikingly from German idiom.

5.1. nicht vs. kein

The choice between nicht and kein depends on several factors. As we noted, nicht appears before all nucleus complements which are not nouns, e.g.:

er kann heute abend nicht ins Konzert gehen (ins Konzert = adverbial prepositional phrase)
er konnte es dem Chef nicht recht machen (recht = one-word adverb)

When nicht is placed before a noun, it may remain unchanged if an activity or skill is being described, but changes to

kein- when the noun refers to a non-specific example of its kind, e.g.:

er kann nicht Auto fahren 'he doesn't know how to drive'
er kann kein Auto fahren 'he is not able to drive any car'

The distinction between nicht and kein- in such cases is frequently rendered in English by the word any, e.g.:

er spricht nicht Deutsch 'he doesn't speak German'
er spricht kein Deutsch 'he doesn't speak any German'[13]

The sentences containing the nucleus Auto fahren would be formed in accordance with the procedures already described, as in this example:

CN:	Auto fahren
XCN:	NICHT Auto fahren
optionally:	KEIN Auto fahren
IS:	er KEIN Auto fahren
FV-L:	er KEIN Auto fahren kann
FV-1:	kann er KEIN Auto fahren ....
FV-2:	er kann .. KEIN Auto fahren

The choice between nicht and kein- in the third line above would depend on the communicative intention of the speaker.

However, when the noun serving as nucleus complement is preceded by ein-, then nicht always becomes kein-, e.g.:

CN:	einen Bleistift finden
XCN:	NICHT einen Bleistift finden
obligatorily:	KEINEN Bleistift finden
IS:	ich KEINEN Bleistift finden
FV-L:	ich KEINEN Bleistift gefunden habe
FV-1:	habe ich KEINEN Bleistift gefunden ....
FV-2:	ich habe ... KEINEN Bleistift gefunden

5.2. Specific vs. non-specific nouns

The distinction between non-specific nouns, like that in the immediately preceding example, and specific nouns, is also reflected in their positions in the infrastructure. The difference between a pencil and the pencil in negated sentences in English is purely a semantic one:

I have found a pencil → I haven't found a pencil
I have found the pencil → I haven't found the pencil

In German, on the other hand, both the form of the negative modifier and the position of the negated noun are affected:

ich habe einen Bleistift gefunden → ich habe keinen Bleistift gefunden

ich habe den Bleistift gefunden → ich habe den Bleistift nicht gefunden

Within the framework of this functional syntax of German, this phenomenon can best be explained by accepting only non-specific nouns (for the most part, those preceded by Ø or ein-, though with exception[S]) as nucleus complements, but relegating specific nouns (most nouns preceded by der/die/das, or by ein- plus a limiting adjective) to the adverbonominal tagmeme. Thus, the last sentence above would be generated as follows:

CN:				....	finden
XCN:			NICHT	....	finden
IS:		ich den Bleistift	NICHT	....	finden
FV-L:		ich den Bleistift	NICHT	....	gefunden habe
FV-1:	habe	ich den Bleistift	NICHT	....	gefunden ....
FV-2:	ich habe ...	den Bleistift	NICHT	....	gefunden

In this instance, the clause nucleus consists of the verb alone, with no nucleus complement.

5.3. Verb complex negation vs. adnominal/adverbial negation in English

This picture is further complicated by another peculiarity of negation in English. When a noun is preceded by Ø or the indefinite article a(n), it may be negated

either (1) by placing no before it, dropping a(n) when present, or (2) by subsequently shifting the negative morpheme back into the verb complex, attaching it to the first auxiliary verb, when one is present, or to the dummy auxiliary do when no auxiliary is present, e.g.:

he will have time today → (1) he will have no time today → (2) he won't have time today

she has a book → (1) she has no book → (2) she doesn't have a book

A similar pattern obtains with the adverb (n)ever:

has he ever studied German? → (1) has he never studied German? → (2) hasn't he ever studied German?

The first pattern of negation bears a certain resemblance to that of German in some cases, e.g.:

er wird heute Zeit haben → er wird heute keine Zeit haben

sie hat ein Buch → sie hat kein Buch

hat er Deutsch studiert? → hat er nie Deutsch studiert?

However, it is the second pattern with won't, doesn't, and hasn't which is more common in English, and hence the construction which is more likely to serve as the model

for students when they make up sentences of this kind. This is the probable explanation for errors like ??? er wird nicht heute Zeit haben and ??? sie nicht hat ein Buch. The remedy lies in a clear explanation of the role of the nucleus in the German clause, and of the position of the negative morphemes in relation to it. Thus, the German equivalent of both he will have no time today and he won't have time today would be generated as follows:

CN:	Zeit haben
XCN:	NICHT Zeit haben
obligatorily:	KEINE Zeit haben
IS:	er heute KEINE Zeit haben
FV-L:	er heute KEINE Zeit haben wird
FV-1:	wird er heute KEINE Zeit haben ....
FV-2:	er wird .. heute KEINE Zeit haben
FV-2:	heute wird er ... KEINE Zeit haben

6. Conclusion

In the preceding sections of this article, the outlines of an abbreviated syntax of German have been presented, one organized to provide specific instructions about combining words and phrases into the basic sentence patterns of the language. It presupposes a grasp of the essential morphology of German, and a vocabulary sufficiently large to enable the student to put together sentences which reflect the minimum conceptual substance required by the subject matter under

discussion. Obviously, no human being composes sentences step by step using analytic procedures like those in which this description of German word order has been formulated. But once the student has learned the basic structural members of the clause and their patterns of distribution, he/she can then discern the organizing principles of the language as they are manifest in the individual sentence--i.e., what is typical, and what is accidental--and apply them in the production of their own utterances as well.

ENDNOTES

[1]I am indebted to my colleagues, Professor Tamara S. Evans, Ms. Dorrit Gerstle, and Ms. Inge Lasting, for reading a draft of this article, and for making a number of helpful suggestions. The views expressed, however, are those of the author.

[2]E.g., Linda L. Harlow, W. Flint Smith, and Alan Garfinkel, "Student-Perceived Communication Needs: Infrastructure of the Functional/Notional Syllabus," Foreign Language Annals 13,1 (January 1980), 11-22; Constance K. Knop, "Notional-Functional Syllabus: From Theory to Classroom Applications," in Maurice W. Conner, ed., A Global Approach to Foreign-Language Education (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1981); and Claude Germain, "The Functional Approach to Language Teaching," Modern Language Journal 66,1 (Spring 1982), 49-57.

[3]The underlying theory is presented in Edward G. Fichtner, English and German Syntax: A Contrastive Analysis on Generative-Tagmemic Principles (München: Wilhelm Fink Verlag, 1979); this work is referred to hereinafter in abbreviated form as "EGS".

[4]Indeed, these terms are misleading, as Herbert Lederer observes in his Glossary of Grammatical Terminology: English-German, German-English (N.p., n.d.), svv. Regular Word Order, Inversion, Transposed Word Order. To suggest that one pattern is 'normal' is to imply that the others are 'abnormal'. All are 'normal'--in the appropriate syntactic environment!

[5]For a justification of the claim of economy of description, cf. EGS, pp. 66-74.

[6]The combination of noun or prepositional phrase plus verb was effectively used in the textbook by Walter F. W. Lohnes and Friedrich W. Strothmann, German: A Structural Approach (New York: Norton, 1968), where it was called the 'irreducible verbal pattern' (IVP).

[7]For practical reasons, one must include the verb sein here, too. However, this verb is unique in that it may take an element from a wide range of form-classes as its nucleus complement. This element is defined not only by its position immediately preceding the lexical verb (as stated here), but also as the element which immediately follows a clause nucleus adverb such as nicht (as explained below). These features of German structure explain a wide

variety of patterns in sentences containing sein, e.g.: ich weiß, daß Hans heute (nicht) hier ist (NCOMP = hier, a one-word adverb); ..., daß Hans jetzt (nicht) auf seinem Zimmer ist (NCOMP = auf seinem Zimmer, an adverbial prepositional phrase); ..., daß Hans (nicht) Arzt ist (NCOMP = Arzt, a noun, i.e., 'predicate nominative'); ..., daß Hans heute (nicht) krank ist (NCOMP = krank, an adjective, i.e., 'predicate adjective'); etc.

[8]There is one form-class which for reasons of pedagogical simplicity has been omitted from this series, namely, the modal adverbs (MDLAV), which lie between the pronouns and the adverbonominals. While these 'little adverbs' or 'flavoring particles' are also part of the structure of German, their use is difficult to teach, because they often have no direct lexical counterparts in English, their meaning being rendered by intonation patterns, etc. For a fuller treatment of this form-class, cf. EGS, pp. 91-94, as well as Edward G. Fichtner, "The Position of Modal Adverbs in German," WORD 31,1 (April 1980), 73-90.

[9]Our procedures remain effective even when more than one auxiliary verb is present in the verb complex. One must keep in mind ~~only~~ that the auxiliary forms of the

verb are placed at the right of the lexical or main verb, as in this example:

CN: ins Konzert gehen
IS: er am Montag ins Konzert gehen
FV-L: er am Montag ins Konzert gegangen sein soll
FV-1: soll er am Montag ins Konzert gegangen sein ....
FV-2: er soll .. am Montag ins Konzert gegangen sein

[10]This rule describes the position of nicht when it is used in a sentence which contradicts the corresponding affirmative proposition, e.g., er ist am Montag ins Konzert gegangen (proposition) → nein, er ist am Montag nicht ins Konzert gegangen (denial); the proposition is deemed false, and is rejected. It is also possible to say er ist nicht am Montag ins Konzert gegangen; this is a form of contrastive negation, however, and would imply the continuation ..., sondern am Dienstag. Similarly, the expression er will auch am Montag ins Konzert gehen is also contrastive, because it presupposes the proposition er will nicht nur am Sonntag ins Konzert gehen, sondern (er will auch am Montag ins Konzert gehen).

[11]For the role of accent in conveying the two possible interpretations of this utterance, cf. EGS, pp. 87-88.

[12]Cf. also note 10, as well as Edward G. Fichtner, "Finite Clause Negation in English and German," in Walter F. W. Lohnes and Edwin A. Hopkins, eds., The Contrastive Grammar of English and German (Ann Arbor, MI: Karoma Publishers, 1982), pp. 180-96.

[13]As to the form of the compound clause nucleus adverb nicht mehr, the use of this expression in the first of these sentences follows the rule established earlier, i.e., it stands immediately before the clause nucleus Deutsch sprechen, e.g.:

er kann nicht mehr Deutsch sprechen 'he can't speak German any more'

However, when the negative morpheme is realized as kein-, the adverb mehr must move to a position immediately following the noun, e.g.:

er kann kein Deutsch mehr sprechen 'he can't speak any more German'

The reason for this shift appears to lie in a general prohibition against uninflected elements before the noun, especially when an article or other determiner heads the group; cf. das heutige Programm vs. das Programm heute.